1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI1 Sinkiang AI1

312 varies from less than a mile to several miles. In addition to Turfan, there are a few *kariz* in the oases of Pichang and Guma, and some years ago they were tried, without much success, on the outer slopes of the extreme eastern Tien Shan, north of Barkul, using skilled workers from Turfan. A *kariz* may be very small: field notes show one in the Komul oasis irrigating only six and a half acres, which is close to the average for this oasis. The most recent figures show the following statistics:

	Number of *kariz*	Total acreage irrigated by *kariz*	Average irrigated acreage per *kariz*
Turfan[9]	370	28,000 acres	76 acres
Toksun	166	10,700 "	65 "
Komul[10]	495	3,700 "	7 "
TOTAL	1,031	42,400	

312 435 The construction of *kariz* involves a heavy capital expense. Stein, some forty years ago, estimated the cost of a single long *kariz* in Turfan at over 300 pounds.[11] A long *kariz* recently constructed cost 50,000 Sinkiang dollars. The risk of failing to find water deters peasants from joining together to dig a *kariz*, and construction is therefore usually undertaken by wealthy landlords who hire labor. Their reward, when they are successful, is a monopoly of the water, which they sell to the peasants in return for a share of the harvest. This form of enterprise is so profitable [454] that some landlords sell all their land and invest entirely in *kariz*.[12]

[9] Ni Chao, "Report on Sinkiang's Irrigation," *Shui-li Wei-yuan-hui yueh-k'an* (monthly of the Conservation Administration), August 1945 (in Chinese).

[10] Huang Yu-hsien, "Irrigation in Hami," *Ching-chi chien-she chi-k'an* (*Quarterly Journal of Economic Reconstruction*) Vol. III, No. 1, July 1944 (in Chinese).

[11] Aurel Stein, *Ruins of Desert Cathay*, London, 1912, Vol. II, p. 361.

[12] This capitalistic turn in the digging of *kariz* is probably a late development. It is likely that in the eighteenth century, when Turfan was ruled by the Khojas, *kariz* were built by exercising the feudal power to demand unpaid labor as an obligation to the lord.

of night soil to the farms as fertilizer, and the farms which are nearest to the bazaar and therefore receive the most night soil form a zone of intensive garden cultivation producing vegetables and fruits for sale to the nonfarming population. In Kucha, a fairly large oasis, fertilizer is generously applied within a radius of five miles from the district city. Within this zone there is one orchard of seventy-five acres which produces apricots as a cash crop for the market. Beyond this inner zone, the amount of fertilizer applied decreases rapidly, and two other zones may be distinguished. In the near one rice, corn, wheat, and cotton may be grown and wheat and corn, when manured, may be grown in rotation. In the third zone practically no fertilizer is used and here hardier crops such as millet, kaoliang (sorghum millet), and potatoes are planted, and fallowing must be practiced. When some fields must lie fallow, the small farm is at a great disadvantage in competition with the large farm. In this zone the cost of transport to market rises rapidly, and the price of land falls.

Beyond this third zone there is usually no water and the desert begins abruptly. Sometimes on the fringe of an oasis, however, there is a thin zone of grazing. Sheep are pastured here, and at the edges of roads, and in land within the oasis too rough for irrigation. Sheep are also pastured in a few places in the scrubby land where dying rivers reach the desert. The shepherds are the Dulani, a people of uncertain but probably nomad origin who live a gypsy-like life and keep apart from the settled Uighurs of the Tarim oases. Both Uighurs and Dulanis breed a sheep which is better for mutton than for wool.

Most food is consumed in the oasis where it is grown, though some oases have a surplus for sale while others are not self-sufficient. The diet of an Uighur villager is largely cereals. The consumption of sugar, fats, and meat is meager except among the wealthy, and there is practically no milk in the diet. The daily calory intake of an adult villager, as estimated in Khargalik in 1943, was 1215 calories of wheat flour, 1215 of corn flour, and 150 of mutton.

1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI1 Sinkiang AI1

439 into the economic life of Sinkiang. In the early 1930's it reached 82.5 per cent of Sinkiang's foreign trade. The most populous and productive areas lie closer to Russia than to any other market. The situation is one which is completely open to the manipulation of Soviet policy, but it was not created by Soviet policy.

439 Cotton has been the most important export to Russia from the 435 oases since 1890. In 1926–1927 the Soviet customs returns listed 248 2676 metric tons of cotton imported from Sinkiang. While cotton averages perhaps a little less than 10 per cent of the total value of exports to the Soviet Union, its relative importance is shown by the fact that more than half of the crop in the Turfan oasis, the largest producer, is normally sold to the Soviet Union, and when the Chinese authorities cut off trade in 1943, because of bad political relations, the effect of the resultant fall in prices was widespread.

439 From the pastoral regions, livestock are the most important export to the Soviet Union, followed by livestock products like wool and hides. Because the Soviet statistics do not give ad valorem figures, it is difficult to state the values of these exports, but it is evident that they greatly exceed the value of exports from the oases. Before the first World War and the Russian Revolution, in 1913, 300,000 head of sheep alone were sold to Russia, representing about 10 per cent of the total number of sheep in the Kulja and Chuguchak regions. Trade fell abruptly during the Revolution and civil war, and did not begin to recover until about 1925. In 1926, 90,000 sheep were exported. One Russian author states that in the first half of 1926 sheep alone accounted for 32 per cent of Russia's purchases from Sinkiang, while all livestock together accounted for 48 per cent.[24] Another Russian author states that between 1930 and 1933 livestock and livestock products provided from 79 to 93 per cent of Soviet purchases from Sinkiang.[25]

This trade is of benefit to both sides. From 1918 to 1924, when

[24] N. Stefanov, "The Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R. in Central Asia," in *Planned Economy*, Moscow, Oct. 1926 (in Russian).

[25] P. M. Fesenko and others, *Iran, Afghanistan and Sinkiang*, Moscow, 1936, p. 346 (in Russian).

October 23, 1942. He has reported that even though reception was weak on the other side, he could hear Chungking clearly. Another sign of the times was the announcement by Chungking postal circles on May 28, 1943, that direct mail service between Sinkiang Province and India had been inaugurated. According to the published report, "After the loss of Burma, all the mail destined for countries by the overland route was sent to Russia where it was re-directed to its various destinations. The opening of the new service has speeded up mail delivery to foreign lands. Arrangements are being made for the opening of parcel service on this overland route."

The wartime fight against inflation and against serious jarring of living conditions has met with considerable success. It is claimed that Price Control Commissions set up "everywhere" have made the Sinkiang price level the lowest in China. Yet wages, correspondent Ch'en Chi-jung has found, are high. Ch'en, walking by a 1942 Sinkiang road construction project about six miles outside of Tihwa, came across laborers who were receiving $12 Chinese a day. He indicates that skilled workers of the province were currently receiving even more.

Serious wage lags in the case of subordinate government salaried employees have been one of China's serious problems in the inflationary years of her Resistance and Reconstruction. This may have been proving difficult for Sinkiang also since many of her government workers, for instance, still receive little more than $200 Chinese a month. But Sinkiang authorities have been meeting the situation for such workers with reductions of social and public expenses, with compensation in the way of reduced prices on commodities, and with small monthly subsidies in such staples as rice, flour, salt, sugar, matches, and oil.

Reports in October, 1943, of Russian "withdrawal" from Sinkiang, have been coupled with increasingly illuminating accounts of new Chinese migration to the province. This can promise a whole new vista of reconstruction developments in the province, and such developments deserve to be watched with keen interest. One of the most immediately noticeable effects has been the announcement on November 10, 1943, of an "ambitious plan" for the modernization of the Sinkiang capital. "During the past three months," the report states, "thousands

3: Skrine G-3 (1922-1924) 1926 All Sinkiang All

as they pass, and nobody minds, for the loss of one or two bundles matters little among so many. In this country everybody seems to be eating all the time. Not only in the town but for miles along the roads leading to it there are wayside food-pedlars every hundred yards, the very poorest of whom has a few handfuls of nuts, slices of melon, and a pomegranate or two to sell; the grander ones have booths or large barrows shaded by umbrella-like canopies of matting and piled up with strange sloppy white sweetmeats and 'mantas,' which are made of minced meat enclosed in thin cases of dough, as well as with the usual melons, peaches and other fruit. No wonder that the Kashgaris are a fat and cheerful race."

The cost of living for Europeans at Kashgar is lower even than it was in India thirty years ago. Wages are absurdly low. The only one of our servants who drew a comparatively high wage was Ahmad Bakhsh, who received 60 rupees (£4) a month because he was an Indian and in exile. Our excellent cook, Daud Akhun, drew 10 taels or £1 6s. 8d.—and other servants in proportion down to honest, smiling Salih Akhun, who did third gardener, kitchen assistant and odd-job man, for the princely sum of 16s. a month. Salih Akhun's manners were delightful; whenever he saw you a grin spread over his rugged face and his right arm moved like clockwork across his lower front in the Turki salute. As for food, here are some of the average prices D. paid in the course of her daily housekeeping:

Meat (excellent mutton every day, beef Thursdays only), 2*d.* per lb.; ox or yak tongues, 8*d.*; kidneys, 5 for 2*d.*
Eggs, 2*d.* a dozen.
Chickens, 4*d.* to 6*d.* according to size; large fat ducks, 8*d.*
Milk, 1*d.* per pint; cream, 8*d.*, from which we made our own butter.
Wheat flour (poor quality), ½*d.* per lb., rice ditto.
Cabbages, 1*d.* each, spinach 1*d.* per lb., potatoes and tomatoes, 2*d.* per lb.
Apricots, in season, per basket of about 3 lb., 1½*d.*; peaches and nectarines, 2*d.*; grapes, 3*d.*
Dried fruits (apricots, peaches, raisins), 1*d.* per lb.
Game in season: pheasants and wild duck, 6*d.*; teal and partridge, 4*d.*; snow-cock (twice as big as a pheasant), 1*s.* 4*d.*

Fresh fish was an item which often appeared on D.'s menus, the best kind being the *asman-belek* or "heaven-fish," which is very much the same as the "mahseer" of India, and is found in both the rivers which flow past Kashgar, the Qizil Su and

3: Skrine G-3 (1922-1924) 1926 All Sinkiang All

horns.[1] The seven families at Kaying Bashi keep about 25 yaks, 10 ponies, 30 head of ordinary cattle and half a dozen camels, besides a few animals owned by the inhabitants of the side-glens of Sarigh Yon and Ghorumda. The total number of sheep and goats in the valley, I was told, is between 3,000 and 4,000.

There are no houses (*tām*) in the Kaying Jilgha, only a few shelters made of branches under trees or against overhanging rocks (*kotan*). The tents (*aq-oi*) used by the Kirghiz, though smaller and poorer, are similar to those described by Miss Sykes in the Russian Pamirs.[2] The average size and condition of the tents varies greatly in different regions: we found much larger and more elaborate ones in the neighbourhood of Little L. Qarakul in the Chinese Pamirs; those we saw in the Tien Shan north-east of Kashgar, again, were smaller and less ornate but more solid, with thicker layers of felts and not nearly so draughty.

A light tent like the *aq-oi* with a roof shaped like a flattened dome and covered with felts which are far from waterproof, even when sound, is quite unsuited to the wet and stormy climate of the Alps of Qungur. That the inhabitants should have kept to it, refusing to build houses for themselves like the Kirghiz of the Qizil Tagh, is a remarkable instance of tenacious adhesion to ancestral habits. They have one great advantage, however, over the inhabitants of the comparatively dry Pamirs; instead of the small quantities of dried plants and dung which are the only fuel to be had in the latter region, they have unlimited firewood of the best quality, fir, juniper, etc., all round them. In cold or wet weather you will always find a roaring fire in an *aq-oi*, and right welcome it is. The problem of keeping the circular aperture in the roof, which does

[1] A Kashgar dealer will pay as much as 2½ or 3 taels (6*s.* 8*d.*–8*s.*) for a first-class red fox skin; ibex and stag horns are used by the Chinese in the concoction of certain medicines and dopes.

[2] "Through Deserts and Oases of Central Asia," pp. 115–16. The figures given by Miss Sykes for the cost of an *aq-oi* are very much higher than in the Qaratash valley. I was told that the forty curved roof-poles and sections of trellis which compose the framework of an *aq-oi* cost 2 tengas (4*d.*) each, and the felts, when new, from 8 to 15 taels between them (21*s.* 4*d.*–£2). The camel-hair ropes and long strips of woollen webbing (*taghar*) with which the framework is bound together under the felts are all home-made, but could be bought for three or four taels; total say £2–£3. Probably Miss Sykes' figures include the carpets, screens, bolsters, etc., with which an *aq-oi* is furnished; these, if the owner is rich, may be worth large sums.

3: Skrine G-3 (1922-1924) 1926 All Sinkiang All

and emerged later with her portly form arrayed in a new white muslin dress and a green striped jacket. D. had as much difficulty in not witnessing her hostess' toilet as she had in keeping a straight face while making polite conversation to her host.

The fertility of the soil and the cheapness of living in Aqsu district are amazing. Agricultural labour costs 2½*d.* *per diem*, and the price of land is on an average less than a quarter of that at Kashgar. A *jing* (20 lbs.) of maize costs 4*d.*–5*d.*, wheat 6*d.* and rice 7*d.* Fruit and vegetables are as plentiful and cheap as the cereals. The grapes we had were the finest I have ever tasted; the two best kinds were an enormous "lady's finger" and a smaller seedless grape with a rose-red flush on it, sweet and strongly-flavoured. The former, which sold at 2½*d.* for a bunch weighing 1½ lbs., were so big that I took one at random from a bunch and measured it; its circumference lengthways was four inches, round the "waist" two and a third. In a field close to Abdus Sattar Haji's house I was astonished to find one day about half an acre of ground literally carpeted with fine melons; on inquiry I was told that there were 15,000 there, and that they were the larger part—not the whole—of the crop raised by a cultivating lessee of some of the Haji's land. The man told me afterwards that he had paid 100 taels (£13 6*s.* 8*d.*) rent for the land and water and had spent 80 taels (£10 13*s.* 4*d.*) on seed, labour, etc. He had already sold 5,000 in the Aqsu bazaar, and expected to retail the whole 20,000 at an average price which worked out at slightly less than a penny apiece, netting approximately 360 taels or 200 per cent. on his outlay! It must be confessed, however, that we found the Aqsu melons inferior to those of Kashgar, though succulent enough according to our English ideas. They had nothing at Aqsu to compare with the ambrosial "Beshak Shirin" of Kashgar.

The garden near the New City to which we moved on 23rd October belonged to the Russian Aqsaqal, another Andijani merchant; it contained an even finer show of fruit and flowers than Abdus Sattar Haji's. There were two immense pergolas measuring together about a hundred yards under which one strolled and munched the above-mentioned rose-pink seedless grapes almost without the trouble of putting one's hand up. The Tao Tai of Aqsu Circle[1] and other officials

[1] This includes Uch Turfan, Bai, Kucha, Shahyar, Bugur and other districts of the lower Tarim River valley with its tributaries, but not Maralbashi, which is in the Kashgar Taoyinship.

439 motor traffic under the name of Sinkiang-Suiyuan highway. In
491 1935 there were about fifty trucks or buses running on this high-
494 way, making four trips a month. The historical Great Northwest
175 highway has also been open to motor traffic since 1930. During the Sino-Japanese War, this traditional highway was one of the most important outlets of free China. It is reported that in the first half of 1942, some seventy million rubles worth of tea, tung oil, bristles, wool and other goods were exported from China to Russia through this route. On the other hand, there were some fifteen million rubles worth of dried goods, metal, canned goods and wine imported to China during the same period, together with an unidentified amount of weapons and war material that the Soviet Union sent to China under the 1939 Sino-Soviet Military Agreement. The total number of five-ton trucks used during the period was 3,600; but those actually in operation were only about a thousand. The total capacity, including camels, of that route was not more than two thousand tons per month. (Cf. Shina Shōbetsū Zenshi, Vol. 8, pp. 636-39. It must be taken into account that this is a Japanese source.)

175 Table V: Trade Between Sinkiang and Tientsin, 1930-32 average
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Description	Value (yüan)	
A. Exports:		5,298,900
sheep intestines	2,400,000	
furs and hides	2,809,000	
raisins	54,000	
medical herbs	17,200	
dried mushrooms	18,000	
B. Imports:		2,743,562
cigarettes and tobacco	808,720	
woolen cloth	104,550	
silk	223,600	
linen	285,200	
cotton goods	110,200	
medical herbs and drugs	84,730	
stationary and books	70,700	
hats and shoes	99,000	
tea	868,852	
leather goods	6,800	
cosmetics	28,350	
paints and dyes	1,200	
hardware	2,160	
seafood	4,100	
chinaware	1,560	
miscellaneous	2,240	
Grand Total		8,042,462

Source: Chung-kuo Ching-chi Nien-chien, 1935 ed., vol. 3, pp. 88-90.

1: Washington S-4 (no date) 1956 AF13 Northwest China
Sinkiang AI1

439 [487] It is understood that there was also considerable trade between Sinkiang, Lanchou and Sian, which, in fact, was the main trade route, but detailed information is not available.

According to a Japanese estimate, the Chinese goods were distributed to the various cities in Sinkiang in the following proportions, which also show the relative commercial importance of the different cities or areas:

Table VI: Distribution of Chinese Goods among Cities in Sinkiang

Place	Percentages of Goods Distributed
Urumchi (Tihua)	25.0
Ili (Huei-yüan)	20.0
South Sinkiang	18.0
Ta-ch'eng (Chuguchak)	15.0
Ku-ch'eng-tzu (Chitai)	12.0
Sharastime (Cheng-hua)	4.0
Hami (Qomul)	3.0
Khobdo (Jirgalantu)	3.0
Total	100.0

Source: Shina Shōbetsū Zenshi, Vol. 8, pp. 534-35.

439 435 175 As to the direct foreign trade, the main country is Soviet Russia. According to official Soviet reports, the value of the Soviet-Sinkiang trade is as follows:

Table VII: Value of Soviet-Sinkiang Trade (unit: 1,000 rubles)

Year	Imports	Exports	Total
1931	13,954	10,212	24,166
1932	15,698	12,305	28,003
1933	10,826	18,822	29,648
1934	4,730	5,945	10,675
1935	6,049	4,550	10,599
1936	36,145	25,671	61,816

Source: Shina Shōbetsū Zenshi, 1943 ed., Vol. 8, p. 514.

439 175 The main exports of Sinkiang to Russia were grain, fruits, wool, fur, meat, paper, cotton, silk, animal intestines and cattle; and the main imports of Sinkiang from Russia were textiles, sugar, metals and metal manufactures, glass and chinaware, oil and matches. The exports of Sinkiang constituted 1.01 per cent of the value of goods that Russia imported from East Asia in 1931, and 1.77 per cent of that in 1932. The imports of

1: Washington S-4 (no date) 1956 AF13 Northwest China
Sinkiang AII

439 175 Sinkiang from Russia constituted 1.58 per cent of the value of goods that Russia exported to East Asia in 1931, and 2.78 per cent of that in 1932.

Aside from Russia, Sinkiang has also entered a close trade relation with India and Afghanistan. According to 1927 statistics, the trade between Sinkiang and India amounted to 5,001,413 gold rupees. The details are as follows:

439 435 175 Table VIII: The Trade Between Sinkiang and India, 1927

Description	Value (rupee)	
A. Imports:		1,186,848
European cotton goods	276,916	
leather goods	41,448	
dye	326,254	
hide (other than sheep)	61,663	
drugs	29,426	
pearls	71,335	
velvet	115,334	
Indian silk	24,876	
spice	36,562	
Indian black tea	27,386	
other black tea	23,098	
European woolen goods	42,000	
Russian metal goods	41,298	
B. Exports:		2,814,565
horses and ponies	101,235	
cotton cloth	35,698	
cankas	96,434	
iron and copper	742,654	
raw silk	31,294	
woolen goods	358,451	
felt carpet	25,524	
iron goods	66,789	
gold	72,631	
Russian metal goods	189,242	
silver	110,377	
leather goods	16,339	
wool	17,288	
woolen thread	16,037	
donkeys and mules	7,508	
jade	8,272	
Grand Total		5,001,413

Source: Chung-kuo ching-chi nien-chien, 1935 ed., Vol. 3, pp. T.94-95.

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439 The trade between Sinkiang and Afghanistan of the same year
435 amounted to 1,378,040 gold rupees. The details are as follows:
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Table IX. The Trade Between Sinkiang and Afghanistan, 1927

Description	Value (rupee)	
A. Imports:		830,500
opium	675,000	
horses	10,000	
furs and hides	52,350	
Russian metal goods	8,550	
almonds	3,600	
B. Exports:		547,540
cotton cloth	176,500	
cankas	94,500	
woolen carpet	80,000	
horses	57,000	
chinaware	21,200	
felt carpet	16,800	
donkeys and mules	13,000	
Khoten silk	12,500	
Grand Total		1,378,040

Source: Chung-kuo ching-chi nien-chien, 1935 ed., Vol. 3, p. T.95.

N
*668 II. The Communist Period
43 Trade in the Northwest under the Communist regime may be described in two parts: (1) changes in volume and kind, and (2) government control.

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[178] A. Changes in Volume and Kind

As far as the physical characteristics are concerned, trade in the Northwest under the Communist regime seems to have remained more or less the same as it was before, because economic reconstruction in this region is still in its initial stage.
N
*668 The following changes, however, may deserve special attention:
496 First, the Communists have taken great pains to improve trans-
491 portation in the Northwest. The most ambitious project, of
178 course, is the Lanchou-Alma Ata Railway, which they plan to complete by 1957. Other improvements include: (1) the Lanchou—Pao-t'ou Railway, which is still under construction: (2) the Hsi-ning-Lhasa Highway, which was opened to traffic on November 16, 1954: and (3) the Tunhuang-Chinghai Highway, which
N links Kansu and west Chinghai, and was opened to traffic in De-
*668 cember 1954. Besides, it is also reported that the original Lan-
491 chou-Chengtu and Lanchou-Urumchi highways have been im-
178 proved upon, and the Outer Mongolia Great Grass Route between